CONSUMERS' GUIDE

OCTOBER 15, 1940

MEAT

MILK GLOSSARY

TOBACCO

FOOD SUPPLIES

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

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IF YOU HAVE a bottle of beribboned champagne handy and you're looking around for something to smash it on, you might use it to christen the new U. S. certified A-B-C grades the Department of Agriculture is launching this fall.

U. S. certified grades are going to grace the products of 5 selected canneries, and they are going to appear for sale in some large cities at the beginning of this winter.

U. S. certified grades already appear on meats, to take one example. When consumers read "U. S. Choice," "U. S. Prime," or "U. S. Good" on a cut of meat that means a Federal inspector has examined the meat, graded it, and stamped it. The grade stamp here is Uncle Sam's word that the meat is the quality it is represented to be.

Now the Federal government, experimentally at first, is cautiously offering the same U. S. certified grades for consumers to use when they buy canned fruits and vegetables.

A-B-C grades are familiar to consumers.

A national chain store company sells canned foods with these A-B-C grades on the label. Many independently owned and operated stores sell foods with A-B-C quality designations on the label. Consumer owned and operated cooperative groceries also sell them.

All this has come about under a law which permits the Department of Agriculture to define quality grades for farm products.

Under this law anyone having a financial interest in foods for which grades have been established may apply for the Federal grading service. When this is done, representative samples of the foods to be graded are examined. A certificate of grade is then issued to the person who applied for the service upon the payment of a small fee.

SOMETIMES THIS GRADE INFORMATION IS passed on to consumers, usually it is not. When dealers do pass the information along to consumers, they have the grade of the product printed on the label. The cost of this is infinitesimally small.

Another way dealers can share their grade information with consumers is even more simple. An experienced dealer can grade the quality of his products himself using the U. S. grade definitions as guides. Then after he has graded the products he can tell consumers the quality of this product without using a single adjective by printing the grade on the container label.

The U. S. certified grades that are now being tried by the Department of Agriculture and 5 pioneering canners, however, are new and unique. First of all the U. S. certified grades do not appear on labels simply as Grade A, or Grade B, or Grade C. Instead, they appear ceremoniously as "U. S. Grade A," or "U. S. Grade B," or "U. S. Grade C."

Somewhere on the labels of these foods there is the additional legend, "This product was packed under the continuous inspection of Agricultural Marketing Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, and the above grade officially certified."

Embossed in the can, if the food container is a can, is the shield of the United States Department of Agriculture. If the container is made of glass the shield is blown into the glass.

U. S., plus the shield of the Department of Agriculture, plus the official U. S. certification on the label mean—

(1) Every statement relating to grade on the labels of these foods has been approved by the Department of Agriculture.

(2) Federal inspectors on 24-hour duty watch over the preparation of the food.

(3) The plant in which the product was packed was subjected to a rigorous inspection.

(4) Employees in the plant observed certain rules of cleanliness.

(5) Workers preparing the food wore uniforms including caps or approved hair coverings.

(6) Federal inspectors observed the preparation of the food at each step.

(7) Samples of each lot of food bearing the "U. S. Grade" were graded and an official certificate of the grade issued. The canners pay the U. S. Department of Agriculture for the salaries and expenses of inspectors, plus the overhead administrative cost of maintaining the service.

Years ago, back in the 1890's when American meat was looked at skeptically abroad because there was no Federal meat inspection service in the United States, the meat packers appealed to the government for a meat inspection service which would examine meat to be exported, and then stamp it with a government stamp. The Federal stamp, they reasoned 30 years ago, would restore confidence in the quality of American beef. They were right, it did, and out of that original inspection service there grew the present meat inspection service.

The new "U. S. A-B-C" grade labels are designed to carry just as much weight with buyers in foreign countries and consumers in this country as the Meat Inspection Service's round purple stamp; more weight in fact, for the round purple stamp is an assurance of wholesomeness only. The U. S. certified grades go a mile farther by telling you the quality of the product (U. S. Grade A, U. S. Grade B, or U. S. Grade C) and then certifying the quality statement.

Plainly the certified grades are an innovation, and an innovation should be tested. To test this new method of certifying quality to consumers, the Department of Agriculture selected 5 canning plants, one in Michigan, one in California, one in Florida, and 2 in New York. The commodities to go out on the trial run are canned corn, sweet and sour cherries, pears, peaches, tomatoes, apricots, fruits for salads, fruit cocktail, and tomato juice.

Official grades for some canned products put up by these packers are not yet available so no grade designation will appear on such products. Nor will grade designations appear on all products of which the grade has been certified. In these instances the label will say, "This product was packed under the continuous inspection of Agricultural Marketing Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture." That statement carries no guarantee of grade, but assures cleanliness and wholesomeness of the product.

During the winter the U. S. certified canned foods will be found on the shelves of stores in many cities.

It has been suggested that this innovation merits "unveiling" ceremonies in stores where these goods may be stocked. If you wish to have your grocer display them and will write the *Consumers' Guide*, you will be sent the names of the cooperating canners in order that you may enable your grocer to get in touch with the canners through which the necessary arrangements may be made.

1940

LOW-COST HOUSING—light, airy, spacious—starts these children to health. Low cost diets can finish the work of making sturdy young citizens if they're planned to pack in balanced supplies of food nutrients economically.

Bringing Up Consumers

Members of a Washington, D. C., low-cost housing project nose out wasteful buying habits to make their dollars buy better meals. Here's how they got on the trail of pocketbook pilferers

CUTTING CORNERS is an American specialty. Some women cut corners by buying dresses for $29.50 which used to cost $59.50. That kind of corner cutting is fun. Other women buy dresses for $1.89 which used to cost $3.00. That kind of corner cutting isn't much fun. It's hard work, and it's necessary work. Half of America's families have to make less than $22 a week stretch far enough to provide for a whole family not only their clothes, but food, shelter, household tools, medical care, personal care, and all the dozens of odds and ends that make living possible today.

Corner cutting by the buyer for such families doesn't stop at dresses. She has to find ways to save on everything the family buys. Through all her economies she has to keep the family's health in mind. The more intelligence and knowedge she brings to bear on the job the easier it is.

Families in a Washington housing project fit in at the halfway mark in the national income range. Most of them live on about $1,000 a year, a little more than $19 a week. Food, as with most low-income families, is their biggest and most important expense, the hardest to save money on.

Because there are so many families in the country like them, who are trying to see what they can do to make their food dollars go farther, the Consumers' Counsel asked some of the housing project families if they would join in a kind of experiment to see how a group of people can get started on an exploration into wasteful food buying practices. They agreed.

First meeting of the Study Circle introduced members to some basic consumer problems and suggested an outline for future meetings.

It's hard to tell anyone in words what it means to be a smart consumer. You have to say it in action. One of the most dramatic ways to get started is the one used at the first Study Circle meeting. It has the same appeal for an audience as a magician with his bag of tricks.

The bag of tricks consisted of a box filled with packages of different foods, medicines, cosmetics. Each package was found during different shopping expeditions in town. Anyone who keeps his eye peeled can make a similar collection, though there are fewer packages on sale which produce an optical illusion in favor of the merchant than there were before the Food and Drug Administration got busy, enforcing its new Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act.

EACH PACKAGE TOLD A STORY. THERE WERE 2 boxes with tubes of toothpaste inside. The tube in the larger box held less toothpaste than the tube in the smaller box. Moral: When you don't read the net contents on the package you may get fooled and pay twice the amount for half as much. There were bottles of strange design that looked as if they held much more than they did. There were packages of tea designed to look as if they held more tea than they really did. Every package had a moral. Together, they showed the audience how intelligent consumers could actually save money by reading labels, looking for the net weight, comparing costs per ounce instead of costs per package, watching for quality grades, marks that guarantee safety, labels that give facts not fanciful adjectives.

As soon as the leader held up the first set of deceptive packages and asked which one was larger, he led the audience into the trap which snares most consumers. They were interested in the game, began to ask questions themselves.

After the gasps of amazement over the number of wrong answers, it was time to explain the first step in this consumer study. Food, which takes the biggest chunk out of most family incomes was the subject chosen for study. There were 2 ways to study it. Starting with the "bag of tricks" demonstration at the beginning of the meeting the group could have gone on looking for all the "gyps" consumers run into every day in food buying. Then they could learn how to avoid them and add up the savings which their smartness would net them. Or else they could start out keeping records of the food they bought and the amount they

spent for it. Then they would not only be able to track down wastes of the kind described above, but in addition they would be able to check up on their diets and see what extra savings they could make by better all round planning. At the same time, they could safeguard the family's health by watching diets. Study Circle buyers decided on the latter method.

CONSUMERS' COUNSEL AND THE BUREAU OF Home Economics worked out a set of charts so that these consumers could keep track of all the food they bought for a week or two.

Group members got behind the idea. One woman said she'd tried over and over again to budget her family expenses. She always gave it up after a month or two. When she heard about keeping her food records she thought it would make her whole budgeting problem simpler. One of the big reasons for her failure before was ignorance of how much she actually needed to spend to give her family the food they should have. She thought that keeping the food records would give her help in apportioning money for food, and other essentials, show her where she could save on food and have more for her other needs.

The chart book, which any consumer group can get by writing to *Consumers' Guide,* is divided into sections for different kinds of food bought during a 1- or 2-week period. It allows room for recording the quantity of each item of food purchased and the amount spent for it. In addition there is an inventory sheet for members to put down all the foods in larders and cupboards at the time both of starting and of ending the account. This is necessary, of course, in order to get a complete record of all food consumed. Staples bought in quantity, such as flour and sugar, might come on this list. At the end of the little book is a chart where with simple check marks each housewife can record the sex and age of each person eating at home each day of the week.

Going over the charts and pointing out which foods belonged under each heading, and how to record quantities, brought out several questions from members. They wanted to know whether low-priced milk was a good buy; what differences in food value there were between vegetable and animal shortenings; whether the Vitamin D in milk was worth the extra amount you had to pay for it, and so forth. Finding answers to these questions would offer hints to economy and better diets even before records of family food purchases were completed and ready to study. Greatest number of questions on any single subject was about milk. Women wanted to know whether all brands were safe, whether some were richer or fresher than others, whether there was more than one grade, and so forth.

TESTING CANNED PEAS by applying U. S. grade standards rooted out many prejudices about price, brand, and quality when testers found their theories had no basis in fact. They decided buying by grade was safest.

THE ANSWERS WEREN'T HARD TO FIND after you knew how. To find out about the health regulations for milk, grading, and butterfat content, someone had to call the District of Columbia Health Department. In addition, someone interested in Vitamin D milk searched government bulletins to get the facts about this milk and what are the real Vitamin D needs of children and adults.

At the second meeting newcomers were introduced to consumer education in a direct way. They heard the answers to the past week's questions on milk as they were brought out in the discussion. They learned that health regulations required inspection of cow, farm, and dairy. They found that Washington milk could have no more than 40,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter, no visible dirt; that it had to be kept at 45 degrees Fahrenheit. With these regulations they agreed they could count on all milk being safe. All milk had to be above 3.5 percent butterfat.

With these facts before them they were ready to figure out for themselves what milk was the best buy. On the basis of dairy figures for butterfat content they found one brand of milk delivered to homes for 14 cents a quart was richest in butterfat, 4.6 percent. One store sold milk at 11 cents which tested 4.0 percent butterfat. If they bought the 14-cent milk instead of the 11-cent milk, they would pay for its additional 0.6 percent butterfat at the rate of $1.86 for a pound of butter. They decided they'd do better to buy 11-cent milk and use the savings to buy extra butter at about 30 cents a pound. For the many families who bought at least 10 quarts of fresh milk each week, the knowledge gained meant 30 cents savings each week, or $15.60 a year.

One woman found out the amount of Vitamin D in a quart of Vitamin D milk. Then she found out how much that much Vitamin D cost in capsule form. She found it was much cheaper to buy Vitamin D in capsules than pay the extra penny for it in milk.

DISCUSSION OF MILK LED TO QUESTIONS about other foods. Several people wanted to know the differences between various brands of canned goods. A testing experiment was promised for the next meeting.

Canned peas were chosen for the experiment. Members were as interested as girls at their first cooking class. There were cans and trays and plates on the table when they came into the meeting. Members joined in the experiment from the start when the chair-

KEEPING TRACK of what the family eats and how much it costs is easy if you put it all down right after marketing. When your records are completed in a week or two you can begin to see where diets are faulty, where money is being tossed away in wasteful buying habits.

PLANNING AHEAD, housewives know how much they'll need of different foods to make a week's well balanced meals. They watch for a Weights and Measures agent's seal of accuracy on grocer's scales. They take advantage of the savings in cash buying.

man asked different women what they looked for when they went to buy canned peas. There were all sorts of answers. One said she looked for tender peas and always got hard. Another said she bought June peas because they were the tender ones. Another said she looked for flavor, another for a good brand, and so forth. One said she got small peas because large ones were always tough. Another mentioned price, and quantity.

THEN THEY STARTED OUT TO TEST 3 KINDS of peas brought to the meeting. All of them were priced differently. The purpose of the test was to find out whether consumers acting alone on their own judgment and experience always spotted the best buy, or whether the standards used by the Government in grading canned fruits and vegetables were more useful and accurate guides. Part of the group devoted themselves to examining the peas. The rest studied the labels to find out what relevant information they contained, how much they could learn from the labels that would help them in buying.

Peas were first examined to see whether they were packed full, and whether the liquor in which they were packed was clear or cloudy. Then the peas themselves were examined. Broken, off-color, spotted peas, skins and foreign material were put aside. Peas were graded according to the number of imperfections found. Next, flavor and tenderness were tested on the basis of information given in the leaflet on U. S. Grades for Canned Peas. When the experiment was over and the women summarized the results, they found that the 12-cent peas which were graded "C," were much superior to another ungraded brand, and that they were very little different from a Grade "A" brand. They concluded that quality grades were a definite help in buying, assuring consumers of a certain defined, consistent standard of quality.

They were also surprised to have some of their notions of what constituted good peas knocked into a cocked hat. One woman, who at first refused to taste a large pea for flavor, because she knew large peas were tough and tasteless, found she liked their flavor best. They also found you couldn't count on early June peas always being tender since they are a variety of pea, not necessarily young peas. Another woman who said she always bought 15-cent peas because cheaper ones had no flavor, decided a graded cheaper brand could be satisfactory and economical, too.

THE IMPORTANT THING TO REMEMBER, IF you are planning an experiment like this for a consumers' group, is to get the group to take part in the experiment all the way through. Also let them determine as a group the problems to be studied. In that way they understand what bearing the experiment has on their own buying habits. If you want to have a detailed outline to use in conducting a testing experiment on peas write to the Consumers' Counsel.

Buying experiences from the first were poured into the hopper of this Washington group discussion. Buying late on Saturday night at large city markets was one kind of economy explored. Some fruits, it was observed, could be bought in quantity at considerable saving; oranges, for instance, when bought by the box and divided among several families, brought down the cost per dozen. Cheese bought by the pound, it was found, cost a third as much as cheese bought in little 5-ounce jars.

ONE OF THE FIRST THINGS SUCH A CONsumer group learns is to look for the seal on a scale showing that the scale has been examined and approved by a Weights and Measures officer. Talk about ounces and pennies leads to learning how useful a Weights and Measures office is, both to buyers and sellers, how it operates, how consumers can work with it to help it do a thorough job.

Washington's group is just starting. A few women have filled out their food records and are ready to get started on a program of better buying habits to cut down waste. Next step, in their better buying study, will be learning how to plan good diets at low cost. For that, this group will first compare their own records of food purchases with diet plans worked out by the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics, noting carefully which types of food they are short on, which types they overbuy. Planning can start soundly only when you know your goal. Fortunately, the goal of a safe, sound diet can now be definitely and accurately stated.

More Strength to Your Meat Dollar

Dollars spent for meat go farthest when you know a few simple facts about food values, kinds of cuts, quality grades, and methods of cooking

WHEN YOU BUY MEAT, you want to know what it will cost, what its food value is, whether it is a tender cut, and how it should be cooked. Which is to say, you want to make your budget buy its best in nourishment, flavor, and variety.

One thing about meat is that you don't necessarily sacrifice food value by choosing low-cost cuts. Inexpensive cuts can be made tender and tasty if you learn the right cooking rules and then have the culinary patience to stick to them.

When it comes to low-cost cuts, you want to know what dishes they are best suited for and how they should be cooked.

A Note on Cooking Meat.

Cook meat according to cut. Buy the cut you can afford, then decide how you are going to use it by checking with the tables on the pages that follow.

Tenderness of the cut and amount of fat or lean determine how it should be cooked. Beef roasts and steaks from rib and loin, all lamb and pork cuts, and most cuts of veal are tender. Less tender are beef chuck, brisket, plate, rump, round, and flank.

Roasts need special attention. Putting the roast in a scorching oven and turning the heat on high will finish the cooking in a short period of time. But that method is expensive because fuel requirements are high, the number of servings per pound of meat purchased are reduced unnecessarily, and the meat loses flavor and juiciness. Lower temperatures in the oven result in very moderate fuel requirements, better tasting meat and more of it, but mean a longer cooking period.

For tender cuts of beef such as rib and loin roasts keep the oven temperature moderate, say 300 to 350 degrees Fahrenheit, and cook in an open pan.

The less tender and less expensive cuts, such as chuck and round, can be made tender and appetizing if cooked properly. Bureau of Home Economics specialists recommend this approach:

Use long, slow cooking with some liquid. That holds for stews, pot roast, Swiss steak, and any of the other meat dishes suitable for low-cost cuts. Follow just the opposite technique for the tender, more costly meat dishes such as roasts, steaks, and chops, cooked by roasting and broiling without added liquid.

Acid of fruits or vegetables also tenderizes meat. Cook the meat with tomatoes; or place it in a mixture of vinegar or lemon juice and oil for several hours before cooking. Pressed for time, the quickest way to cook tough meat is to grind it, or pound the meat to break up the connective tissues.

"Meat Dishes at Low Cost," prepared by the Bureau of Home Economics, gives more information about cooking tough cuts and has over 50 laboratory-tested recipes for meat dishes. Price: 5 cents. Order it from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Do not send stamps.

Food Value of Meat.

Meat contributes fat, protein, and iron to the diet. Nutritionists rate it a good energy food if it contains its quota of fat. Meat organs—heart, kidney, liver—and lean meats are good sources of Vitamin B_1 (adequate amounts of Vitamin B_1 or thiamin are of special importance for making food energy available to the body, for maintaining normal appetite, and for promoting normal tone to the digestive tract); of Vitamin G or riboflavin (without which sores, reddening of the skin, and scaling about the nose, mouth, and ears may develop); and of nicotinic acid (the anti-pellagra vitamin). For Vitamin B_1, lean pork is far superior to other lean meats.

Muscle-building protein—chief nutrient of meat—is found in the lean portions.

Compare Costs.

High-priced meats are not high because their lean meat is more nutritious than the lean meat in low-priced varieties. The lean in meat of one grade, or cut, or sex of animal has practically the same food value as the lean in meat of any other. Much of the extra flavor and tenderness found in higher-priced meats is due to the extra fat they include. This fat has food value, too, but it may cost more than fat in some other food.

If you must make your meat dollar work hard, then shop around for the lower grades bearing the Government grade mark of "Utility" or "Commercial," and look for the low-priced cuts as shown in the charts on the pages which follow. Higher quality Government-graded meat bears stamps reading "Good," "Choice," or "Prime."

Meats as they are handed to you over the counter by your butcher usually include not only lean but fat and bone. Sometimes you can eat the fat, too. The bone's largely waste, except for what flavor it will give a soup or for what fun it will give the family pet. The proportions of lean, fat, and bone vary greatly from cut to cut, from grade to grade. Sometimes a low price per pound of meat may mean a high cost per pound for lean.

If consumers knew the percentage of lean meat in every retail cut, it would be a simple matter to figure the actual cost of the lean portion. These figures are lacking.

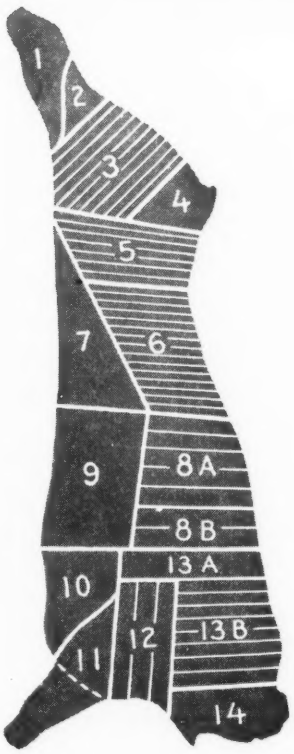
Local preferences for different cuts sometimes have the effect of making them relatively more expensive than in other places. It's smart practice to experiment with all different kinds of low-priced cuts.

About the beef charts on the pages that follow: "Porterhouse" may be an uncommon name for a steak to some of our New England readers. Likewise, Midwest readers may be confused by "top round," and "heel of round," instead of just plain "round" cuts. It all adds up to the complete lack of standardization throughout the country in cutting up a beef carcass. There is a "New York style" of cutting, a "Chicago style," a "Cincinnati style," and any number of others developed through local practice and custom. The charts on the opposite page show the "New York" and "Chicago" styles of cutting. The Department of Agriculture is urging meat packers to adopt the "Chicago style" as a standard. If some of the cuts seem strange, ask your local butcher to tell you what they are called locally.

Consumers can get pictures of wholesale beef cuts, and the retail cuts that come from them, by ordering a set of the meat identification charts prepared by the Department of Agriculture. The charts show how representative wholesale beef cuts are carved up into retail cuts. They also illustrate the difference in appearance between cuts of different grades. Copies must be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Ask for "Educational Illustrations on Agriculture and Home Economics—Group 6, Meat Identification, Beef." The price is 15 cents. Do not send stamps.

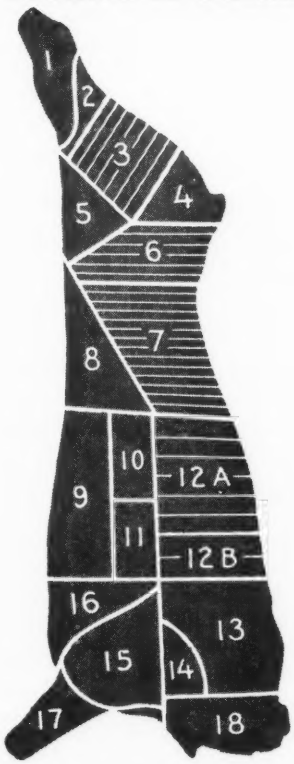
BEEF

Chicago Method of Cutting



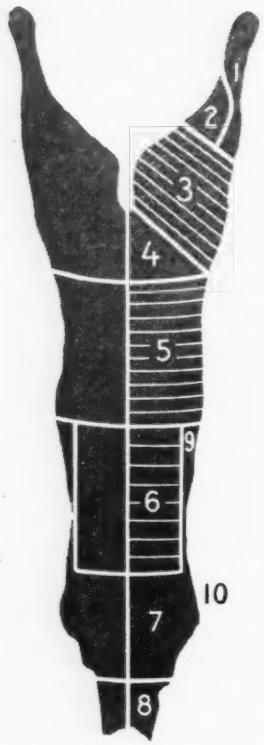
CUT	USE
Low-Cost Cuts:	
1. Shank (including bone)	Soup, stew.
9. Plate, fresh or corned	Stew, boiling meat.
10. Brisket, fresh or corned	Boiling meat, stew.
11. Fore shank	Soup, stew.
14. Neck	Stew, mincemeat, meat loaf.
Medium-Cost Cuts:	
13. Chuck—straight cut:	
A. Chuck blade	Pot roast, stew.
B. Chuck	Pot roast, stew.
2. Heel of round	Stew, pot roast.
3. Full round	Minute steak, Swiss steak, pot roast, stew.
4. Boneless rump	Pot roast, corned.
7. Flank	Braised steak, stew.
12. Chuck round bone	Pot roast, stew.
High-Cost Cuts:	
8. Prime rib—7 ribs:	
A. Prime rib roast, 3 ribs	Roast.
B. Blade roast, 2 ribs	Roast.
5. Sirloin	Broiled steak, roast.
6. Porterhouse	Broiled steak.
Other Edible Parts:	
Heart	Stew, stuffed, braised.
Kidney	Stew, meat pie.
Liver	Fried, braised, liver loaf, liver paste.
Tongue, fresh, corned, pickled, smoked	Boiled.
Tripe, fresh, pickled	Broiled, fried, creamed.
Oxtail	Stew, braised, soup.

New York Method of Cutting



CUT	USE
Low-Cost Cuts:	
1. Shank (including bone)	Soup, stew.
9. Navel	Stew, boiling meat.
10. Thick plate	Stew, boiling meat.
11. Corner piece	Pot roast.
16. Brisket, fresh or corned	Boiling meat, stew.
17. Fore shank	Soup, stew.
18. Neck	Stew, mincemeat, meat loaf.
Medium-Cost Cuts:	
2. Heel of round	Stew, pot roast.
12. Prime rib—8 ribs:	
B. Blade roast, 2 ribs	Roast.
14. Top chuck	Pot roast, stew.
4. Boneless rump	Pot roast, corned.
3. Round	Minute steak, Swiss steak, pot roast, stew.
5. Top sirloin	Pot roast, roast.
8. Flank	Braised steak, stew.
13. Chuck	Pot roast, stew.
15. Cross rib	Pot roast.
High-Cost Cuts:	
6. Sirloin	Broiled steak, roast.
7. Porterhouse	Broiled steak.
12. Prime rib—8 ribs:	
A. Prime rib roast, 6 ribs	Roast.
Other Edible Parts:	
Heart	Stew, stuffed, braised.
Kidney	Stew, meat pie.
Liver	Fried, braised, liver loaf, liver paste.
Tongue, fresh, corned, pickled, smoked	Boiled.
Tripe, fresh, pickled	Broiled, fried, creamed.
Oxtail	Stew, braised, soup.

8 VEAL



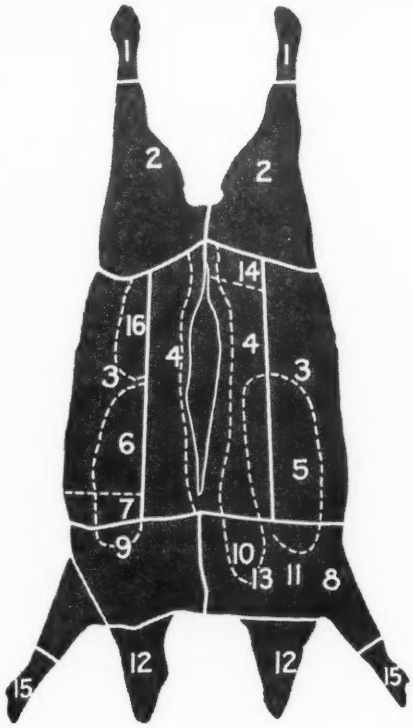
CUT	USE
Low-Cost Cuts:	
2. Heel	Fricasee, pot roast, ground meat.
8. Neck	Fricassee.
9. Breast	Fricassee.
10. Fore shank	Soup, fricassee, ground meat.
Medium-Cost Cuts:	
1. Shank	Soup, fricassee, ground meat.
4. Rump	Pot roast.
6. Rack	Braised chops, roast.
7. Chuck	Pot roast, fricassee.
High-Cost Cuts:	
3. Round	Cutlets, veal birds, roast.
5. Loin	Braised chops, roast.
Other Edible Parts:	
Heart	Stew, stuffed, braised.
Kidney	Stew, meat pie, broiled.
Liver	Broiled, fried, braised.
Tongue, fresh, corned, pickled, smoked	Boiled.
Brains	Fried, braised, scrambled.
Sweetbreads	Broiled, creamed, in salad.

Veal, from very young calves, 3 to 8 weeks old, is most plentiful from January to July. Veal from calves between 3 and 10 months old is most plentiful from June to November.

LAMB

CUT	USE
Low-Cost Cuts:	
5. Neck	Stew.
6. Shank	Soup, stew, ground-meat patties.
7 & 8. Breast	Stew, stuffed roast.
9. Flank	Stew, ground-meat patties.
Medium-Cost Cuts:	
1. Leg	Roast.
4. Square chuck	Boned roast, stew, Saratoga chops.
High-Cost Cuts:	
2. Loin	Broiled loin chops, roast saddle.
3. Rib or rack	Broiled rib chops, crown shoulder roast.
Other Edible Parts:	
Heart	Stew, braised.
Kidney	Broiled on toast.
Liver	Broiled, fried, braised.
Tongue, fresh, corned, pickled, smoked	Boiled.
Brains	Fried, braised, scrambled.

Lamb is tender at any age. "Spring lamb," 3 to 5 months old, is most plentiful from May to September. Meat from more mature lambs, 6 to 12 months of age, is most plentiful from September through April.



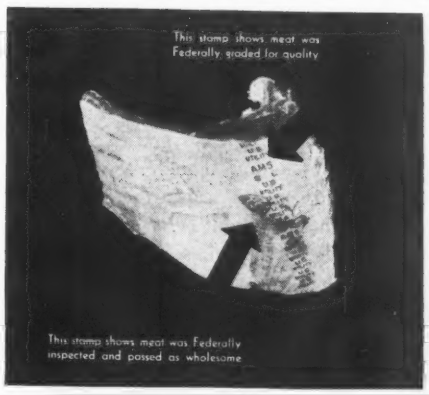
CUT	USE
Low-Cost Cuts:	
1. Hind feet	Boiled, pickled.
5. Spareribs	Baked, boiled.
6. Spareribs (half sheet)	Baked, boiled.
10. Neck bones	Cooked like spareribs.
12. Jowl butts	Sliced, fried, seasoning for vegetables.
15. Forefeet	Boiled, pickled.
Medium-Cost Cuts:	
7. Brisket (forepart of bacon)	Seasoning for vegetables.
8. Cured picnic	Baked or boiled, fried or braised.
9. New York style shoulder	Cooked like ham.
11. Picnic butts	Cooked like ham.
13. Boston butts	Cooked like ham.
14. Loin Butts (end of pork loin)	Roast.
2. Cured hams (purchased whole or half)	Baked, boiled, fried, broiled, or braised slices.
2. Fresh hams	Roast, braised steak.
High-Cost Cuts:	
3. Bacon (without rind)	Broiled, fried.
2. Cured ham, center slices	Broiled, fried, braised.
4. Fresh pork loins	Roast, crown roast, braised chops.
4. Cured pork loins	Canadian style bacon.
Other Edible Parts:	
Heart	Stew, braised.
Kidney	Stew, meat pie.
Liver	Fried, braised, liver loaf, liver paste.
Tongue	(Fresh, corned, pickled) Boiled.
Brains	Fresh, braised, scrambled.
Tail	Boiled.
Ears and snout	Boiled.
Head	Headcheese, scrapple.

Always look for the safety mark of Federal inspection on meat crossing State lines

Best quality cuts of fresh pork are wrinkle-free, with a thin, smooth skin. High-quality flesh is firm; poor quality, soft and flabby. Top-grade hams have a moderately small shank, and are short and thick. Look for soft, red bones and fine textured flesh in the best grades of spareribs and pork loin. Cook all pork thoroughly.

LOOK FOR QUALITY GRADES

when you shop for meat. If your purse is small, select cuts from the lower grades. From high to low, grades for beef, veal, and lamb are: PRIME, CHOICE, GOOD, COMMERCIAL, UTILITY.


This stamp shows meat was Federally graded for quality
This stamp shows meat was Federally inspected and passed as wholesome

10 Milk Glossary for Consumers

PART III

"C's" have it this time in this continued dictionary of terms consumers use in talking about their milk problems*

CLASS PRICE. (See Classified Price Plan.)

CLASSIFIED PRICE PLAN. The classified price plan is a method used in many milk markets for the purchase of milk by dealers from milk producers. Milk purchased under the classified price plan by a dealer is classified according to the uses to which the milk is ultimately put. A price is established for milk used in each classification. The plan has been used for many years in some milk markets, particularly since 1918.

Fluid milk, generally speaking, is milk which goes into bottles and carries the highest price. It needs to be produced in conformity with strict health regulations applicable to milk to be used for fluid consumption, and therefore the cost of its production is greater than the similar costs for milk which does not have to meet these requirements. There are also other factors, such as higher transportation costs, which tend to make the price for fluid milk higher than that of milk used for other purposes. Under the classified price plan fluid milk is called Class I milk.

Milk used to produce cream is usually classified as Class II milk. Some markets have only two classes of milk, while other markets have a varying number of classifications, depending upon local conditions. In some markets there are separate classes for milk manufactured into butter and for milk manufactured into cheese, for example.

The amount of milk consumed in bottle form remains rather constant from month to month throughout the year. On the other hand, the amount of milk produced to supply consumer demands varies greatly from season to season. Much more milk is produced in the spring season than in the fall season. In order that there will be an adequate supply of milk in the fall season to meet the demand, it is necessary to produce a surplus in the spring above the total that is needed for fluid consumption. Even in the fall season, however, some excess milk must be produced above the fluid requirements, because the amount of milk consumed from day to day varies. Milk in excess of fluid requirements, may be classified as Class II milk, Class III milk, or Class IV milk, depending on whether it is used as table cream, butter or cheese. Milk for each use then carries a price determined by the price paid for milk used in butter and cheese in places where milk need not be produced in conformity with the strict health regulations applicable to milk for fluid consumption.

It works out this way: The farmer ships his milk to the handler and then the handler sells some of the milk as fluid milk, some of it as fluid cream, some of it as butter, some of it as cheese, and some of it as ice cream. While the handler does this, he keeps a record of the amount of milk that is used for each purpose and at the end of the month he calculates what percentage of all the milk bought was used for the various purposes.

Suppose, for example, it works out that the handler sold 75 percent of his milk as fluid milk, 5 percent as fluid cream, 10 percent as ice cream, and 10 percent as cheese.

The prices for milk used for these purposes might be (1) for milk sold as fluid milk—$2.45 a hundredweight; (2) for milk sold as fluid cream—$1.80 a hundredweight; (3) for milk sold as ice cream—$1.70 per hundredweight; (4) for milk sold as cheese—$1.10 per hundredweight.

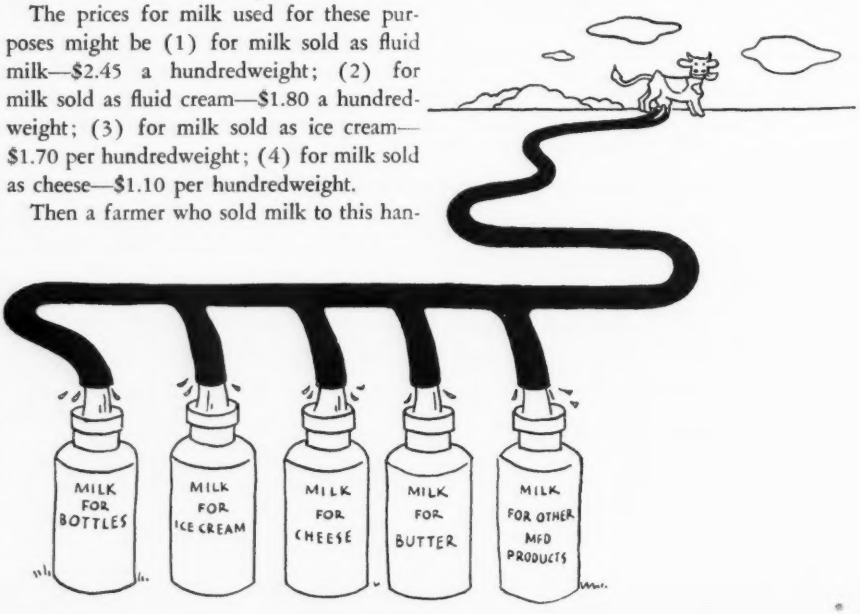
Then a farmer who sold milk to this handler would get $2.45 a hundredweight for 75 percent of the milk he shipped, that is for the fluid milk; $1.80 a hundredweight, the fluid cream price, for 5 percent of his milk; $1.70, the ice cream price, for 10 percent of his milk; and $1.10, the cheese price, for the remaining 10 percent of his milk.

The average price paid for all of the milk is called the blended price. In this particular case the blended price would be $2.21 per hundredweight. It is calculated by multiplying the percentage of the total amount of milk used for each purpose by the price of milk for that class. The products obtained from these multiplications are added together and then divided by 100.

In the hypothetical case used here the arithmetic would look like this:

	$2.45	(price of milk used for fluid milk)
	×75	(percent of all milk used as fluid milk)
(1)	$183.75	
	$1.80	(price of milk used for fluid cream)
	×5	(percent of all milk used as fluid cream)
(2)	$9.00	
	$1.70	(price of milk used for ice cream)
	×10	(percent of all milk sold as ice cream)
(3)	$17.00	
	$1.10	(price of milk used for cheese)
	×10	(percent of milk used for cheese)
(4)	$11.00	

Add (1), (2), (3), and (4) together and you get $220.75. Divided by 100, this equals $2.21, the blended price.



*Earlier installments have appeared in "Consumers' Guide," August 1940, and October 1, 1940, issues.

CONCENTRATED MILK. (Plain condensed milk.) This is not the condensed milk that is sweetened and sold in cans to consumers as condensed milk. Concentrated milk is whole milk from which part of the water is removed by evaporation in a vacuum pan. It is sold in bulk to bakeries and other concerns which use milk in large quantities as an ingredient in their products.

Under an official standard of identity, recently promulgated by the Federal Food and Drug Administration for this product, concentrated milk must conform to the definition for evaporated milk except that it is not sterilized, and it does not come in a sealed container. It is intended for immediate use.

CONDENSED BUTTERMILK. A semi-solid buttermilk is made by evaporating (usually in a vacuum pan) water from buttermilk until it has a heavy consistency. It contains enough acid to prevent spoilage.

CONDENSED (sweetened) MILK. A preparation made by evaporating a mixture of fresh whole milk and sugar. One pound of condensed milk is the dietary equivalent of 2¼ to 2½ pounds of fresh milk. While this product is similar to evaporated milk (see Evaporated Milk), it is so sweet that it should not be used for infant feeding except on a physician's prescription.

An official Federal definition, issued under the provisions of the Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act of 1938, states that condensed (sweetened) milk should contain not less than 28 percent total milk solids, and not less than 8.5 percent of milk fat. This definition reads, "Sweetened condensed milk is the liquid or semi-liquid food made by evaporating a mixture of sweet milk and refined sugar (sucrose) or any combination of refined sugar (sucrose) and refined corn sugar (dextrose) to such a point that the finished sweetened product contains not less than 28.0 percent of total milk solids and not less than 8.5 percent of milk fat. The quantity of refined sugar (sucrose) or combination of each sugar and refined corn sugar (dextrose) is sufficient to prevent spoilage.

CONSUMERS. While textbooks often talk of "consumers" as the people who buy a product, "consumers" here is used in a much broader sense as referring to everyone who uses or could use a product, in this case, milk. Unfortunately too many people are not actually milk consumers because they can't afford to buy milk. But by modifying the definition of consumer, they can be included in the disccussion where they belong.

In general, most people are alike in that they need milk. How much they need de-

pends on their age and their health.

They are not alike in their ability to get the milk they need.

In the United States, a rough classification divides the people who need milk into 3 classes. There are classified consumption plans for milk as well as classified price plans.

Class 1 includes a minority of Americans who can afford to buy all the milk they want and to pay whatever price is charged for it, even when the price is inflated by the cost of charge accounts, delivery, other services, and even by expensive inefficiencies or needlessly multiplied facilities.

Class 2 is made up of most Americans, the people who could buy the milk they need if milk were sold to them at the lowest possible price, stripped of the cost of special delivery and charge accounts, duplicate services, and other non-essentials. These people need milk, know that they need it, and would be perfectly willing to pay a cash price within their means for it and lug it home themselves if they had a chance to. These people, too, are making use more and more of some of the devices suggested in milk economies (see Economies). Obviously, as consumers, their problem is different from the problem of the people in Class 1.

Class 3 is made up of the people in American families who because of unemployment and other reasons haven't money to buy milk at any market price. These consumers have a problem, too, but it is one which must be dealt with by public assistance.

Recognition of these 3 classes presents milk problems in a different light than that which is thrown on them if all consumers are considered to be alike.

Thus, if consumers in Class 1 do not get enough milk, education is the answer.

Class 2 can get more milk when milk is sold at the lowest possible cost.

Class 3 can only get more milk if public agencies supply it.

CONSUMERS' COUNSEL DIVISION. An agency within the United States Department of Agriculture which operates under the general supervision of the Director of Marketing (see Director of Marketing).

First established under authority given in the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933 and continued under subsequent farm acts, the Consumers' Counsel Division is charged with the two-fold responsibility of representing the consumer interest before the agencies and boards engaged in working out and administering the national farm program, and of aiding rural and urban consumers to make wise use of their expenditures and to get the greatest possible satisfaction from them.

One-half of any program designed to secure adequate supplies of food and fibers for all consumers and fair returns to the producers of foods and fibers is the education of consumers so they may cope with their job at the consuming end of the marketing process. One medium through which such educational information reaches consumers is the *Consumers' Guide*. The Consumers' Counsel Division also furnishes speakers and exhibits for consumer meetings and conferences, issues pamphlets on consumer problems, presents a weekly radio program in cooperation with the General Federation of Women's Clubs, conducts research on consumer subjects, and offers itself as a first source of information to consumers on questions related to the supply, price, and quality of agricultural products.

Besides presiding at hearings on marketing agreements and orders, the Consumers' Counsel Division has furnished information to consumer groups preparing to plead their own cases before these hearings.

Within the Department of Agriculture it has cooperated with agencies in working out programs designed to get more milk to consumers, such as the 5-cent milk program, the school lunch program, the penny milk program, and the food stamp plan.

The information issued by the Consumers' Counsel Division, both in its publications and by radio, has attempted to give consumers a broader understanding of all milk problems by (1) discussions of the nutritional value of milk and milk products, (2) descriptions of the production and marketing of milk, (3) analyses of the laws relating to milk, and (4) suggestions of measures consumers can undertake on their own behalf to secure more milk.

Tobacco Holds an Election

Tobacco farmers go to the polls in a new kind of election under the Triple-A program to adjust marketing to the possibilities of the market

JULY 20, 1940, there was a stir down in the tobacco country. Some 203 thousand Americans started off down the road heading for the neighborhood church, the neighborhood schoolhouse, the crossroads store, or the county Agricultural Adjustment Administration office.

All through the bright leaf, flue-cured tobacco belt on the morning of July 20, in front of these community buildings, there were little knots of sunburned men, standing around talking. Inside the community buildings there were other men who sat around tables and seemed to be busy at clerical jobs. In the corner of the room where they sat was a box closed tight. Over the box was a sign, "Ballot Box."

By the time the sun of July 20, had set, 203 thousand farmers had walked into their community buildings in North and South Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, the north end of Florida, and a corner of Alabama. They had dropped their ballots into the ballot boxes.

When all eligible voters in a neighborhood had cast their ballots, the tellers, who were local farmers, tabulated the returns and phoned them to county seats. Other farmers, elected by their neighbors, tabulated votes for the counties, and phoned the results of their computations into the State offices. Finally—by telephone and telegraph—all of the returns converged in an office at Raleigh, North Carolina, where men marked them on blackboards.

Late in the night of July 20, 1940, a man, standing at the blackboard, drew a line beneath a column of figures, made a calculation, and then, after he got an all-clear signal from a checker, announced the election returns.

"The 3-year marketing quota has won; 174,779 for 3 years, 3,655 for 1 year, 24,625 for no quota at all." Then, reading a slip of paper that had been handed to him, he added, "86.1 percent of the total vote was for the 3-year tobacco quota."

Flue-cured tobacco growers, plain people with way less than average U. S. incomes, had 2 strikes on them this summer when they began to harvest their tobacco.

The world smokes up in cigarettes and pipes some 775 million pounds of United States grown bright leaf tobacco a year. In 1939 a record crop produced 1 billion 159 thousand pounds of the bright green leaf that cures to a golden brown. That was 400 million more pounds than the tobacco trade could absorb under normal conditions.

About the time this record crop was hauled to the tobacco barns in the mule-drawn tobacco "trucks" (home-made affairs on wooden runners or small wheels) that are used for this purpose, about half the world was looking anxiously at the sun and listening fearfully for the drone of bombers. Europe was at war.

BOMBERS DIDN'T FLY THE ATLANTIC, but one of the first moves of America's best tobacco customer was to stop buying tobacco. America's best tobacco customer buys one-third of the bright leaf tobacco the United States produces and pays nearly one-half of the total amount of money received for the crop. This customer, Great Britain, stopped buying when an order was issued shutting down on exchange for buying American tobacco.

About 300 thousand farm families grow flue-cured tobacco. Men, women, and children plant, cultivate, and harvest flue-cured tobacco with an average of about 2½ acres per family. In 1939, these families sold their tobacco for an average of 14.9 cents a pound. That 14.9 cents comes hard. Each pound of tobacco contains from 60 to 75 leaves, and each of these leaves is handled 4 different times and then several more times in little bundles of leaves before the tobacco is finally hauled to market and sold.

Altogether the 300 thousand flue-cured tobacco families had a tobacco income of 172 million dollars in 1939, an average of $573.

TOBACCO GROWING is hard work. Planting and cultivating is tedious, and harvesting means that each of the 60 to 70 leaves in a pound of tobacco must be handled 4 times, then rehandled several times in small bunches of leaves.

That wasn't all their income, some of them grew cotton or peanuts or other cash crops, too, and then most of them got soil-conservation payments. That $573 added up to most of what they got, however, and out of it had to come the cash costs of raising tobacco, from $30 to $40 an acre for seed, fertilizer, poison, twine, tobacco sticks, and other materials. On what was left after their expenses were paid they had to live, they had to buy the food they didn't raise, they had to buy clothes, pay taxes, make church contributions, buy school books, pay for medical care, pay interest on loans, and all the other inescapable cash costs of living. All of these expenses had to be paid out of a cash income which came to around $200 per person.

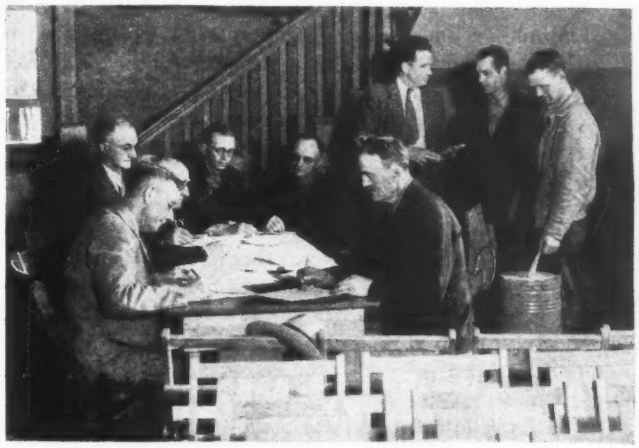
THE SITUATION THEN, WHEN THE WAR broke out, was this. Three hundred thousand tobacco farmers, with incomes already less than adequate, saw the repercussion of a war 3 thousand miles away take the one customer from whom they got nearly one-half of their cash income.

Last time anything like that had happened to them was in 1932, when flue-cured tobacco growers got about 42 million dollars for their bright leaf tobacco. Then an economic tornado swept through the bright leaf tobacco belt, hardly a bank was left standing, and many a business man was left insolvent.

In September 1939 the barometer again flashed storm signals, but there was one major difference. The big difference totaled up finally to the difference between a 172 million dollar tobacco crop and a 43 million dollar tobacco crop. That difference by its own name was the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938 as amended, that is—the Triple A.

When the British and other foreign buyers of tobacco stepped out of the market, there was a moment of paralysis, and then relief, as the Department of Agriculture stepped in. The tobacco trade itself declared a 30-day marketing holiday, and then the powerful new economic machinery blueprinted in the Triple A began to operate. A referendum on marketing quotas for 1940 was held, and growers voted 90 percent in favor of them. With a referendum among tobacco growers authorizing tobacco control measures for the 1940 crop, the Department of Agriculture made Federal funds available through the Commodity Credit Corporation to keep tobacco moving almost as if no emergency had suddenly clouded tobacco prospects. British and foreign buyers were authorized to buy tobacco of the same quality and in the same quantity they would buy ordinarily. They

ELECTION DAY came July 20 this year in the flue-cured tobacco country when 203 thousand farmers voted for tobacco marketing quotas for the next 3 years.



WAR echoed through the tobacco auction halls a year ago last September when Great Britain, America's best flue-cured tobacco customer (buying one-third of the crop, paying half of total return), pulled out of the market.

SHOCK ABSORBING the crisis, the Triple-A program provides a method by which tobacco is held here until foreign buyers are ready. The tobacco would ordinarily be stored for a year or two. Under the Triple-A program, the tobacco is stored in the United States instead of in Europe.

bought this tobacco, however, for the Commodity Credit Corporation's account and then the tobacco which customarily would have been shipped abroad for storage was stored here in the United States. In return for payment of part of the handling charges, options on this tobacco were given to the foreign buyers which permit them to buy this tobacco for their own account any time up until July 1, 1941. American tobacco buyers who buy for foreign accounts were enabled to buy tobacco, too, just as if their principals abroad were taking tobacco. Then they were loaned money on what they bought to enable them to hold the tobacco until markets abroad open up again.

WHEN THE WORLD SETTLES DOWN AND foreign buyers again will want American tobacco (and they will, because the world hasn't stopped smoking), the tobacco situation will be well in hand. The tobacco bought with Federal funds, or with the assistance of Federal funds will move right on through the usual channels.

While tobacco farmers hope, along with everyone else, that the world is going to come out topside up, they can't rely on that. They've got to take disaster into account, too. That explains why they voted on July 20, 1940.

Under the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938, as amended, tobacco farmers have the means to vote themselves a way to stand up against disaster.

Each year when supplies are excessive, the Secretary of Agriculture proclaims what is called a national marketing quota for tobacco. He announces the number of pounds of the various types of tobacco that should be produced to supply all the tobacco that is needed for home consumption, export, and for reserves. This allotment of tobacco is then divided among the States, and finally among individual farmers.

TOBACCO FARM ALLOTMENTS ARE GEARED in with the soil-conservation program. To earn soil-conservation payments on tobacco, farmers plant within the acreage established as their allotments. Farmers can, however, let their AAA payments go and plant all the tobacco they want to, if that's the way they feel about it.

In 1939, when there was no marketing quota, many farmers felt that way about it, and the result was 400 million pounds more tobacco than the world could absorb.

There are some stories statistics tell better than plain words. Tobacco farmers will have strung up and cured 660 million pounds of bright leaf tobacco by the end of the 1940 tobacco season, less than 60 percent of the 1939 crop. Thus the tobacco marketing program voted last year already is operating to bring the emergent situation in hand. However, adding the crop this year to the mountain of tobacco left over from 1939, you get some 2,070 million pounds of tobacco. That's the total flue-cured tobacco supply.

Flue-cured tobacco burns up, that is, consumers smoke it in their cigarettes or stuff it in their pipes, at the rate of 750 to 800 million pounds a year. Half of this tobacco, somewhere between 350 and 450 million pounds, normally was exported for smoking in foreign countries.

Now with a record supply of tobacco on hand, about 400 million pounds more than there would be a market for even if there were no war, the loss of the export market threatens to double the troubles of tobacco raisers.

TIME WAS WHEN FARMERS GOT THEMSELVES into this kind of a jam and then had no way of getting themselves out except over the hard rocky route that winds around past bankruptcy and poverty.

Now they can vote themselves a marketing quota. Under the marketing quota a farmer may not market more tobacco than he produces on his acreage allotment. (For 1941 flue-cured farm allotments will be the same as in 1940 when the national allotment amounted to approximately 760 thousand acres which with average yields will produce about 660 million pounds.) Tobacco marketed in excess of a farmer's quota must pay a penalty—in the case of flue-cured tobacco the penalty is 10 cents a pound.

Formerly marketing quotas could only be voted for one year. Under the shock of what happened in September 1939, farmers decided that it would take careful management and long time planning to get the tobacco situation back in hand. So Congress, at their request, amended the farm bill to provide for 3-year marketing quotas.

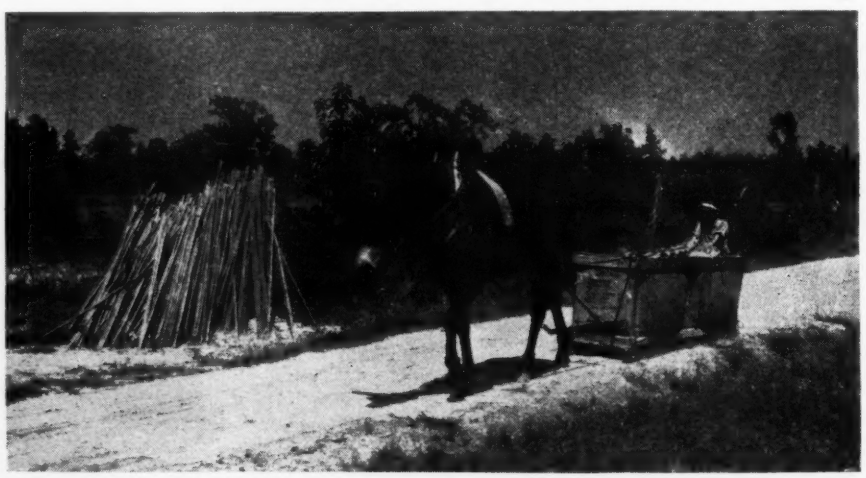
Before a marketing quota can go into effect two-thirds of the farmers who vote in a referendum must approve it. In 1938, voting on quotas for the 1939 season, a majority of the flue-cured tobacco farmers voted for a marketing quota. A two-thirds vote was needed, however, so the quota was lost. In 1939 they voted again and a marketing quota for the 1940 crop was approved by 90 percent of the voters. Then on July 20, 1940, they voted marketing quotas for 3 years.

With their votes registered and the quotas approved, tobacco farmers now look forward to what's coming, not happy over the state of the world, but hopeful they can maintain a living income from the tobacco they sell while waiting for foreign countries to become buyers again.

THERE WAS A TIME WHEN THE AMERICAN farmer stood alone against his many problems. Individually, he was unable to contend with the swift economic changes of the time, and was limited in meeting the challenge of soil depletion which threatened millions of acres of once fertile farm land. His existence was too often subject to the whim of chance, or the influence of more compactly organized groups in the markets of the

But American farmers found a means of strength in unity. And the means was found within the scope of a democratic form

WHOLE FAMILIES work on tobacco patches which average 4 acres or less. In 1939, when flue-cured tobacco brought an average price of 14.9 cents per pound, the gross cash income from tobacco came to about $573 a family.



of government. The farm program of the AAA is operated by farmers and for farmers. In every community and county, farmers choose their leaders from among their neighbors, at the ballot box.

There is also another perspective on tobacco. Acreage allotments and marketing quotas are designed to make men masters of economic forces. Soil-building payments are made to tobacco farmers for planting soil-building crops that restore fertility to the soil, for planting trees, for filling up gullies, and for returning strength to the soil in the form of phosphate and lime.

PLANTING KITCHEN GARDENS IS ANOTHER way tobacco farmers may earn their soil-conservation payments. Already the soil-conservation program has resulted in ampler and more varied diets which contain more of the important health-conserving protective foods.

By encouraging tobacco farmers to grow soil-building crops like lespedeza and clover, the Triple A has also encouraged pastures to green in the summer where there were no pastures before. This, in turn, has resulted in the multiplication of family cows, which means milk and butter for farm children who once ate dangerously and monotonously on meat, meal, and molasses.

Flue-cured tobacco makes up half of the tobacco produced in the United States. Used largely in cigarettes, it gets the name flue-cured from the fact that the green leaves are cured in a barn by furnace heat.

Light air-cured (which is chiefly Burley) is the next most important type of tobacco produced in the country. It is used in cigarettes and smoking tobacco. As its name indicates, it is cured by exposure to the air. Because tobacco problems vary with the type of tobacco, there is a separate program for light air-cured tobacco, just as there is for fire-cured tobacco (tobacco cured over an open fire) and dark air-cured tobacco, which are used in chewing tobacco and snuff.

About the end of November 1940, the Burley and dark tobacco growers are going to the polls to vote on a marketing quota just as flue-cured tobacco farmers did in July.

Now no one thinks that because people can vote on their economic problems the problems are solved. That just isn't so.

But if a man thinks about his problems, he is making a small amount of progress. If he and his neighbors work out a program and vote for it and get it, they are making more progress. Then if the program doesn't work the way they want it to, they can tinker with it and vote a patch on their program. That's a little bit more ground gained. Slowly people get places that way.

YOUR FOOD SUPPLIES AND COSTS

FOOD COSTS. Costs went up slightly (1 percent) from August to September after having declined in the 2 preceding months. This increase was due mainly to a larger than seasonal increase in meat and egg prices. There were no other material changes in food prices, except a decrease in prices of fresh fruits and vegetables.

Despite this increase, food costs continue to be relatively low, compared with levels of most recent years. Costs in September were higher than in 7 of the 9 months of this year and above all months in 1939 except September and October. However, they were below the monthly levels from January 1935 to September 1938, a period of nearly 4 years. When compared with September levels exclusively, present costs are the lowest they have been since 1933. The charts on the left show the current level of individual food groups compared with September of earlier periods.

FOOD SUPPLIES. Total supplies for November and the Thanksgiving holidays may not differ much from last year. Supplies of some foods will be larger, and others smaller, except for chestnut supplies, which will be relatively large compared with most recent years.

Turkeys probably will be more plentiful than last year because of a record size crop. In other foods the prospects are:

INCREASES—potatoes, cabbage, dairy products, citrus fruits, pears, fresh tender vegetables, dried beans, pecans.

LITTLE CHANGE—meats other than poultry, dried fruits.

DECREASES—Chestnuts, chickens, cranberries, sweetpotatoes, onions, eggs, rice, apples, canned fruits, canned vegetables, almonds, walnuts, filberts.

FRUITS. Record supplies of oranges and close to record supplies of grapefruit are expected this winter and spring.

VEGETABLES. Winter supplies of tender vegetables may be larger than last year.

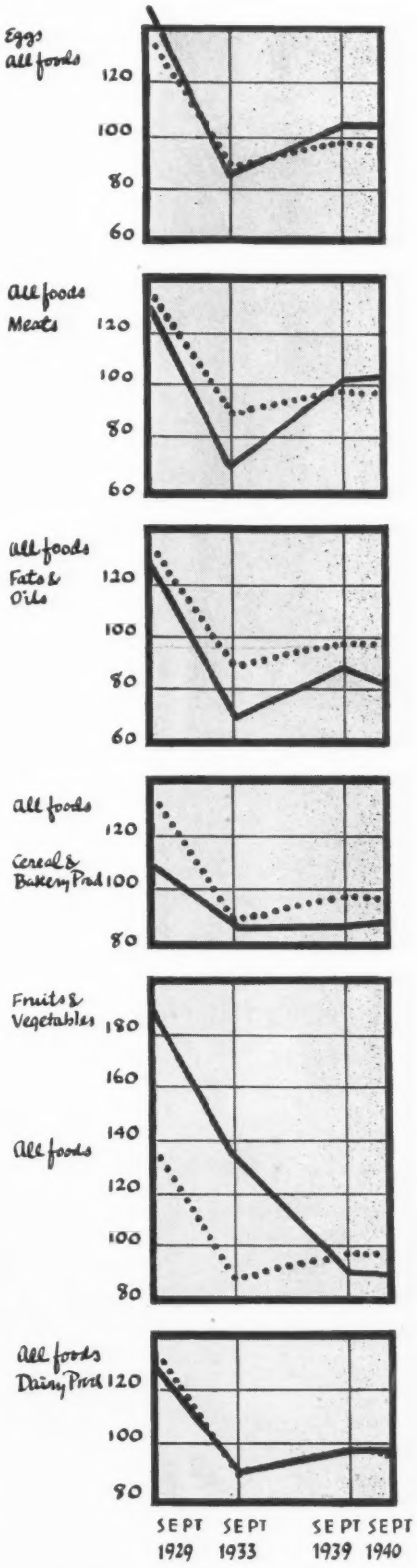
EGGS. Low point in monthly production, which generally is reached in November, probably will be below a year ago.

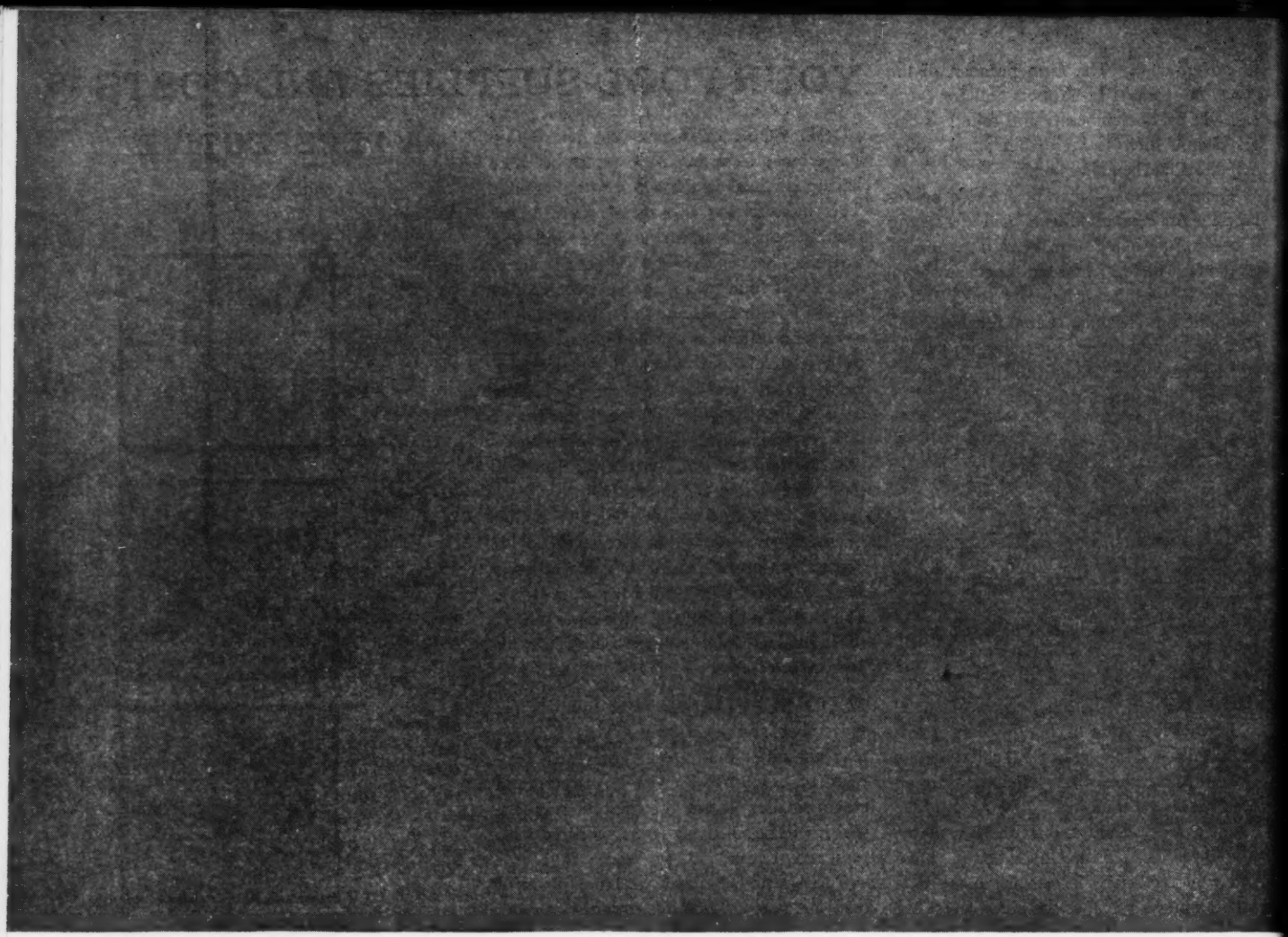
DAIRY PRODUCTS. Milk production this winter probably will continue relatively large compared with recent years.

MEATS. Compared with October, less beef and lamb, but more pork is expected to be available in November.

A PERSPECTIVE

(1935–39=100)





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